

THE

*School
Counselor*

POWER CONFLICT IN CLASSROOMS AND MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING.....	<i>David H. Jenkins</i>	39
SYMPTOMS AND CAUSES OF ADOLESCENT DELINQUENT BE- HAVIOR.....	<i>N. Harry Camp, Jr.</i>	47
PLAY AS A COUNSELOR'S TOOL.....	<i>George W. Murphy</i>	53
REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NATIONAL TESTING AND SCHOLARSHIPS.....	<i>Calvert W. Bowman</i>	58
THE SCATTERGRAM: AN INDEX OF ACADEMIC POTENTIAL AND PRODUCTION.....	<i>Julius A. Stratton</i>	61
HINTS FOR COUNSELORS.....	<i>Kenneth A. Myers</i> <i>W. Carson Ryan</i>	63

The School Counselor

JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN SCHOOL COUNSELORS ASSOCIATION

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The President's Message

New Committee

A new ASCA committee called the Ethical Practices Committee has been organized to explore the need for a specific statement in this area. Brother Raymond, Director of Guidance, Xaverian High School, 7100 Shore Road, Brooklyn 9, New York, is chairman of the committee and will work closely with the existing APGA Committee. The October 1959 APGA Journal contained the statement on Ethical Practices for APGA. You may wish to look at this. If you have ideas in this area, please convey them to Brother Raymond.

Membership

The membership rolls are still growing with an average growth of 103 new members per month over the past 11 months. We are grateful for these new members but our membership would be even larger if we did not lose members each year who fail to renew their membership. State membership chairmen can be very helpful in following up on these members. Dr. Kenneth Parker, the ASCA Membership Chairman, tells me that at the date of this writing the following states are still not covered by membership chairmen: Arizona, California, District of Columbia, Georgia, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, Hawaii, New Mexico. It is possible that in some instances the last membership chairmen have just not answered the communication concerning their availability. If you know of a good ASCA member who could fill the position of Membership Chairman in these states, please contact Dr. Parker at Lamphere Public Schools, Madison Heights, Michigan. WE NEED YOUR HELP.

Fifty-seven counseling institutes have increased the number of school counselors by 25 per cent, according to a report issued at the end of June. How many of these trainees did you encourage to become counselors? The quality of people who enter the counseling profession will depend in large measure on who we bring in. Are you doing your part?

Publications

The booklet "How About College Financing?" and the Counselor's Manual to accompany this booklet were late in being mailed out to ASCA members. We hope that you are finding them helpful.

Watch for a booklet describing how librarians and counselors can work together for an effective guidance program in the school. You will receive more details on this in the near future.

Are there other types of publications which your association should attempt to get published?

CARL PEETS, *President*

Editorial

Teen Age Drivers Poor in School

Counselors should take note of, and utilize in their work with students and their parents, the facts recently revealed regarding car-student-academic relationships. Despite the fact that an automobile may be a social asset to a teenager, it can definitely be a serious academic liability.

The judgment of school principals, teachers, counselors, and parents which has been maintained for years has now been strongly corroborated by a nationwide survey conducted by All State Insurance Companies.

The survey covered a large sample of the United States high school population—20,000 juniors and seniors in 29 communities representing all sections of the country and all socio-economic brackets. The results show a definite relationship between driving habits and academic performance. The higher a student's mileage, the lower his grades are likely to be. It should be emphasized, however, that occasional use of the family car for dates does not appear to have a detrimental effect on school work. The facts are that the overwhelming majority of A and B students are restricted by their parents or voluntarily restrict themselves to week-end driving, predominantly on Saturday nights and Sunday afternoons. Relatively few of the upper bracket students use cars on school nights.

The survey also shows that students who own cars are more likely to drive excessively and to make poor grades. The percentage of car owners is highest among F students, next highest among D students, and so on until it reaches a minimum among A students.

One other finding of the survey is worth emphasizing. Students who work at part-time jobs in order to support a car, are twice as likely to make failing grades in school than other students. Thus parents should be helped to understand that saying "you can have a car when you are able to earn the money to pay for it," can lead a teenager to academic disaster.

Exercise Your Privilege to Vote

The American School Counselors Association is made up of counselors and related personnel workers in schools throughout the United States. Each member of the association has the right to a voice in its policies.

(Continued on page 46)

Power Conflict in Classrooms and Motivation for Learning*

DAVID H. JENKINS

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One may wonder what relationship a discussion of power conflict and learning has to do with the work of the counselor. I think it has a very central relationship. It is my understanding that an important part of the role of a school counselor is to work with students to help them make a more satisfactory adjustment to the school situation. So-called behavior problems may be referred to the counselor if they cannot be suitably handled within the classroom. Children who are having difficulties in learning, who seem uninterested or resistant, may also be referred to the counselor's office.

It is my thesis that the power relationships in the class have an important influence on the behavior problems and the student's motivation in the class. It thus is necessary that the counselor recognize these factors if he is to deal appropriately with the student who is referred to him.

The class as a social situation

It is axiomatic that the classroom is a *social* situation. No matter how much we talk about the individual child, we are dealing with him as a class member—a member of a group. Even if there is individualized learning it is done in the context of social interaction. Our professional pre-occupation with the individual has tended to overlook this fact. However, in the last few years, educators are looking more closely at the social forces in the classroom to determine their effects on the learning which goes on. For example, Part II of the 59th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education which has just been published is on the *Dynamics of Instructional Groups*.

Although the social forces in the class are complex, the ones which are particularly relevant for our discussion today are those related to the inter-personal relationships in the class. These include both the relationships which exist between the teacher and the pupils, and those among the pupils themselves. It is in the context of these relationships that the student finds his security—he comes to feel there is a place for him; he feels accepted and respected. If the relationships are such that he has not found a satisfactory place for himself, his first goal will be to attempt to

* Presented at the 1960 convention of the American School Counselor Association, Philadelphia, Penna., April, 1960.

find such a place. If the problem remains unresolved then, he will give continuing energy to it.

There is ample evidence to remind us that as social beings each of us seeks a place or position of some security and satisfaction in his social relationships. If we are in a group which is established to accomplish some task, we do not easily go to work together on the task until we have established some basic relationships with others in the group. So it is with the child. He is not able to give his energy freely to the learning tasks as long as he has not found some security in his relationships with the teacher and others in the class. As counselors, you will recognize the implications of this for the sense of worth the person has about himself, his self-concept, and the emotional conditions related to these problems.

Briefly, what we are saying is that to the extent the interpersonal relationships in the class are unsettled, or are unsatisfying, the students will be subconsciously attempting to resolve these difficulties while they are in the class.

The Nature of Learning

Perhaps I should share with you a few assumptions which I hold about motivation for learning and about the learning process:

First, it seems evident to me that the child is, basically, a learner. This is a major element in the nature—to explore, to find out, to ask questions, to understand.

Second, it seems that, like other activities, learning activities must be satisfying in some way or another to the student if they are to be sought out by him and taken part in. If he learns that classroom activities are not satisfying—or that they may be actually frustrating and defeating, then he is less likely to be interested in participating in them. He *learns not to get involved* in classroom work if he can help it.

Third, the most efficient learning situation is one in which the satisfactions which come to the student come directly out of the learning activity itself. The material is meaningful to him, he sees some relationship of it to himself, and the activity or methods he uses to gain the material are also satisfying to him. Of the two, I strongly believe that the meaningfulness of the learning offers the stronger motivation. A real insight experience, where the insight is seen as directly related to something one wishes to understand, or in some other way has direct meaning to himself, is most satisfying; this is true even though the path to that insight may have been difficult and even frustrating.

Here is the background I have attempted to state for our exploration of the problem of power in the classroom: the class is a social situation, and the inter personal relationships in it are important to the participants. Each child needs a satisfying place in the social scheme; if he doesn't have

one he will attempt to secure one some way or another. The student is a learner at heart, and gains great satisfaction from learning which is meaningful to him. He can also *learn* that many classroom activities are neither meaningful or satisfying.

The Nature of Power

Let us turn now to the nature of power:

Here is a working definition for power: Power is the capability of controlling another person's need satisfaction. *Power is a quality of the relationships between people*, and it defines the relationship in which one person can decide on his own whether he will give reward, punishment, or need satisfaction to the other person. If you have something I want, or can do something to me I don't wish to have happen, then I am subject to your power. I will tend to do whatever you wish me to do, in order to avoid the consequences of your using your power. Reward giving is just as much an aspect of power as in punishment.

Now, where does power exist in the school? Let me say categorically that the basic relationship between the child and the school is the power relationship. Here is why:

First, under the law, the child is required to be in school. In the school he is assigned to a particular classroom, with a particular teacher, and a particular collection of other pupils. It is an entirely imposed situation—rarely does he have any choice in it. The only other place we find this same kind of situation is in a prison, and even in a prison the prisoner "chose" to be there by involving himself in some criminal act. The child doesn't even have that much choice!

Given the compulsory situation, the teacher has a class of children over whom he has power and control and who are permitted almost no recourse to the way he uses that power and exerts that control. Other than prison workers, the teacher is the only professional I can think of whose clientele are "forced" to use his services. If the child attempts to reject those services—if he attempts to rebel, or stay out of school—some of the strongest forces the society can bring to bear on anyone come down on his head.

Second, the classroom situation itself involved power. Not only is the student required to be present in it, he is also subject to the punishments and rewards that are imposed within it. He cannot escape. One tragedy of the school, it seems to me, is those students who are compelled to be in a situation which permits them to have little else but a constant failure and rejection experience during the most formative years in their lives. It is within the school's hands, and particularly the teachers', to determine whether the experience a child has in school is an experience to success and gratification, or failure, punishment and rejection. As long as we

handle grades and other evaluative devices on the basis we do—evaluating and judging the child on other bases than his own capabilities and nature—then this condition will continue.

Yet, frequently, teachers do not stop there. Not only are grades given on the basis of some standards independent of the particular child (and we have lots of rationalizations why this is necessary), grades are also used as rewards and punishments by the teacher. That is, the grade is reduced by the teacher not because the child has not learned as much as he should, but because he has not met the work or behavioral demands of the teacher. The grade is used as an additional whip to get submission and compliance from the student. And we are naive enough sometimes to assume that the grade always represents achievement.

I have suggested two elements of power that affect the child: the compulsory attendance at school, and the control the teacher has over the achievement success or failure of the child. There is a third element of power which is also active in the class. That is the control the teacher has over the personal and emotional satisfactions the child may gain in the class. If the way the class is managed by the teacher increases the feelings of security of the children, perhaps even permits them to have a little fun together, then the child can get some kind of satisfaction out of it. If the teacher manages the class through the use of tight control, inhibits spontaneity, or, even worse, attempts to control the class through use of sarcasm and criticism, then there is little chance for any satisfaction there.

Through his position in the classroom, the teacher has considerable power in determining the social atmosphere of the group, and the quality of relationships which develop among the students. The teacher's behavior almost inevitably sets the emotional tone for the children. In this instance, the effects of the teacher's power cannot be avoided. *Whatever he does* affects the emotional needs of the children. If he is friendly and cheerful, there will be one atmosphere; if he is depressed and critical, there will be another atmosphere. He is going to have effects like these on the children. He can ignore this fact and do what he wishes, or he can take responsibility for the effects he is having and manage his behavior and attitudes accordingly.

With the basic relationship between the school and the child being one of power, what difference does this make regarding learning and motivation learning? Simply, it means that for his own survival in the situation the child must protect himself by giving first attention to the way he is going to be treated by those people who have power. His first job, therefore, is *not* to give his energy to the learning activities, but to take care of himself in the power situation. He will listen *first* for the sarcasm and criticism, or the acceptance and reward, in the teacher's voice before he can hear the answer the teacher is trying to give. Or he will work to get the right

answer in order to please the teacher. His motivation is *not* to learn; it is to get the personal reward of the teacher. There are personal risks if he does not do so.

The fact that students tend to be sensitive to the question of *fairness* by the teacher is another example of their awareness of the power of the teacher. Being fair is a quality of the power relationship—a person is fair when he uses his power and makes his decision according to the accepted rules, or values of those over whom he has power.

Power is not always a problem

What are the conditions under which power seems to be no matter? In a classroom where the students are getting their own needs satisfied by their membership in the class and by participating in the learning activities, power is no problem. The children are there because it is a meaningful and satisfying situation—they *want* to be there, they are motivated to take part. Their own motives are being intrinsically satisfied. Under these conditions, no one has to make them go to school, nor has to use grades or other devices to *make* them do the work. They are too busy with their own purposes and motivations to be bothered.

Power is only a problem when it has to be *used*. That is, power is only an issue in a relationship when the person who is subject to the power *resists* doing what is desired by the person who has the power. Power is then brought to bear in order to enforce one person's will over another. There are few of us, perhaps only those who are extremely submissive or dependent, who get much satisfaction or meaning out of doing something we do not wish to do, or see no reason for doing, simply because someone else forces us to do it. Why should children like it any more?

It seems obvious to me that if power is a continuous issue in the classroom, if the teacher spends a considerable amount of his time or energy using power, then either the curriculum is inappropriate to the children or the quality of teaching is inappropriate.

There are certain symptoms which quickly suggest that power has been at work in the classroom as an active force over a period of time. The research on autocratic leadership many years ago indicated that apathy is not a condition inherent in the child, but is a consequence of behavior of the adult who closely controls the situation and enforces his wish upon it. *Apathy is a reaction to power*, and the activity which occurs in such a situation will tend to be the least amount of work necessary to keep the consequences of the power from being too great. The child does what he has to do, but no more. And we also know that he is likely to stop that activity the minute the person with the power goes out of the room. He will tend to forget the learning which may have been involved in the

activity much more quickly than when his participation in the activity was related to his own needs.

Another symptom of power is aggression. The autocratic leadership studies demonstrated these two reactions to autocracy: some groups tended to react with apathy and submission; the others reacted with aggression. Of course, if the consequences of aggression become too painful, it, too, may turn to apathy. I am suggesting, therefore, that when a teacher raises the question of an apathetic or aggressive class his first place to look for the trouble is in his own relationship with the class, and his own teaching. These two symptoms are directly related to the use of power as a primary element in the adult-child relationship.

The Power Conflict

What of the power conflict? So far, we have described the power that the school and the teacher have over the child, and the reactions the child has to it. Is there another side? Yes, there is. While the school and the teacher have more means of controlling the need satisfaction of the student than the reverse, the children in the school are not exactly powerless.

One kind of power the children have is their access to parents who are willing to put pressure on the school and the teachers. This kind of power is a necessary check on the teacher, and the only protection the child may have from an unwise teacher. Sometimes it is a power channel which is inappropriately used. This is particularly true in cases where the school board or school administration accept from the parents almost any complaint or pressure, rather than accepting only those complaints which represent professional problems in the school. To the extent the school administration does not protect the teacher from unsuitable parental pressure it is not doing its job in permitting a teacher to do professional work.

Another power in the class which the children have is the power they wield in satisfying or denying the needs of the teacher himself. Most teachers want to do a good job in the classroom and want to be liked and respected by their students. But the children have control over whether they like the teacher or not. They can give or withhold affection, or appreciation, or respect.

The teacher, being human, will tend to find it more difficult to work with a class that does not meet his needs. If the class does not give the affection he wants, or the respect, then the reaction of the teacher to the class will change. This situation is even more difficult if the teacher has a personal need for power. For the children refuse to meet his need for power, to refuse to acquiesce, becomes a rejection of his personal need.

The class is an interacting social situation. If either side of the relationship, the teacher or the children, does not get some satisfaction out of the

relationship they will react accordingly. There will be some increase in rejection and hostility, and a loss of spontaneity and open communication.

A third power which the students can demonstrate is their active resistance to what is attempted in the class. They may rebel against the assignment or other work demand or, under certain conditions they may attempt to retaliate against the teacher for some unfair demand he has placed on them. A situation in which retaliation occurs certainly indicates that the students are feeling themselves under considerable pressure and power which they do not wish to accept. If they take retaliatory action, it also means that the consequences of their rejection of power seem less important to them than the rejection itself. Submission may be entirely unacceptable to them, no matter what the consequences.

And, of course, another power which the student can exert is to refuse to accept the basis upon which the teacher is attempting to exert power. One of the most disturbing things to a teacher is when a child says, "Go ahead and fail me. I don't care!" This means the child is denying the teacher an important source of his power. The teacher quickly feels threatened, especially to the extent he has depended upon his power as his principal relationship with the children.

Finally, the most difficult conditions of power with which the teacher may have to deal are those when the entire class organizes itself, either subconsciously or actually, and presents a united front of opposition. "In union there is strength", and it is not a strength that teachers sometimes wish to encourage. One wonders whether one of the reasons teachers hesitate to encourage their classes to organize as groups, or really to become identified with each other is their fear of this potential counter power. Their common concern when discussing group methods in teaching is their fear of "loss of control" in the class.

The sum up, whenever the conditions which exist in the class do not permit the motivations of the students to be positively related with the learning activities, there is likely to be a power conflict. When the students are not interested in doing the work, and have to be made to do it, then power takes over. This takes the time and energy on the part of both the teacher and of the children. Energy which goes into the power conflict is not productive energy for the purposes of the classroom.

The Counselor's Role

Now, back to counselors: How do these ideas relate to your job?

It seems important to me, when a child is referred to you for counselling, that the *situation* in which he is having a problem be examined as closely

as his own personal characteristics. What is wrong with the classroom or the teaching may be the more central question than what is wrong with the particular pupil. His reaction may be quite a healthy, or predictable one to a very difficult situation. Behavior and learning problems of children may arise directly from the power relations in the class. The child who is aggressive or insubordinate is reacting to these elements. Of course, the child who submits to the power by being passive and dependent is not likely to be in trouble. He may seem quite well-behaved even though, he has had to lose his personal integrity and spontaneity to do so.

I would like to see the counselor in the school take the role of specialist in helping teachers understand problems like these. The counselor is likely to be the person best trained of any on a particular faculty to be aware of such problems. This says to me his job includes working with the teachers to improve the emotional atmospheres of the classroom and especially to reduce the power conflicts which are in the class. To the extent he can find ways of taking a positive role like this, he would certainly be doing a job of preventive counselling—improving the emotional conditions in the situation so that behavior problems, and problems of motivation arise less often.

(Continued from page 38)

One of the means by which you can make your views and opinions known is through voting in the association's elections. In the past, a majority of the members have not found it important enough to express their opinions when nomination ballots are forwarded and refrain from returning their ballots when the final slate of officers is presented for voting. Exercise your right to determine who your officers will be. Through your vote, your feelings can be made known. When your nomination ballot is received, sit down and mark it immediately. Then, when the slate of nominees is presented, mark your ballot and return it immediately. The opinions and feelings of all members are needed.

GAP Fund

It is hoped that all ASCA members will make a special effort this year to contribute to the GAP Fund. This is to be the last year of the big push, after which time we will be "over the hump." A word from you describing how worthwhile this project is may get the ball rolling in your local group. If each of you could visit your professional home in Washington and see the dedicated staff at work in a setting befitting our professional group, you would realize how far we have advanced professionally since we purchased this headquarters.

Symptoms and Causes of Adolescent Delinquent Behavior

N. HARRY CAMP, JR.

Director, Child Guidance Clinic, Brevard County Schools, Cocoa, Florida

This is the first of a series of articles dealing with adolescent delinquent behavior. The timeliness of this series is revealed in the sharply rising trend in delinquent behavior among the adolescents in the United States and throughout the world. The fact that this year's President's Whitehouse Conference on Children and Youth considered this the number one problem on its agenda suggests that the concerted efforts of all those personnel dealing with children and youth is needed to bring about immediate courses of action to stem the rising tide of juvenile crime, the increasing incidence of unhappy homes, and the waste of desperately needed future manpower. The articles which will appear in future issues will endeavor to assist counselors to work more effectively with this problem on-the-job in the nations schools. Their work with teachers, parents, and other community agencies should be made easier as the result of the insight this series of articles will aim to provide.

The Editor

The alarming increase in juvenile delinquency and crime emphasizes the pressing need for preventive measures and for guidance and rehabilitation of potential offenders. A successful attack upon the problem depends upon the combined efforts of all community, state and federal agencies.

The recognition of the part that the counselor, psychologist, and social worker in the school setting can play in helping to solve the delinquency problem comes largely from the psychological, sociological, and educational professions. It is becoming increasingly clear that by means of counseling and the therapeutic process the individual is able to gain insight into the causes of his acting out tendencies and to keep them in abeyance. At the same time, he can acquire adjustive defenses and channel his talents and abilities into socially acceptable behavior patterns.

Socially significant contributions to our country's welfare can be made if school counselors, psychologists, and social workers are made aware of these facts regarding the symptoms and causes of maladjustive delinquent behavior. Through their daily activities these personnel on-the-job in our elementary and secondary schools can prevent considerable amounts of the amoral and antisocial acting out behavior engaged in by "normal" adolescent boys who feel rejected and confused in a threatening and a hostile world. Thus many potential juvenile delinquents can be salvaged and prevented from joining the increasing ranks of hardened criminals, racketeers, murderers, arsonists, and other adult antisocial types.

For the purpose of this article, the thorough study of forty boys (white and colored) was used. Thirty-five of the boys were in-patients and five were out-patients in a psychiatric clinic for adolescent delinquent boys.

The data is based upon thorough pre and post therapeutic psychological diagnoses by a psychiatrist, and a clinical psychologist, and the observations of a psychiatric social worker, teachers, psychiatric aides, medical doctors, dentists, et cetera.

It was found that this group of boys had certain traits and characteristics which ran through all the variants. Special physical and psychological stigmata seemed to distinguish this group of forty delinquent boys.

The boys were of adolescent ages—ranging from eleven to seventeen years with an average age of fourteen years four months. The one prominent fact that was universally characteristic was that each boy had been apprehended repeatedly by law enforcement agencies because of his antisocial or amoral behavior in his local community. The majority were attempting to strike back at forces in their environments which they considered rejecting and threatening. Their hostility was expressed by stealing, aggressive sexual behavior, and generally being incorrigible to their parents and other individuals in the community. Invariably, however, each of the mothers of these boys told us: "My son is really a good boy but he got to running around with the wrong bunch and got into trouble." The implication was that delinquent conduct was established as "the thing to do" in the group in which her son became involved, and there was nothing he could do but become a part of it.

Thirty-one or 77.5 per cent of the boys engaged in stealing and/or armed robbery of some type. Ten of the boys stole one or more automobiles. In one escapade, a fifteen year old boy stole half a dozen cars in as many states despite the fact that he had his own car and ample money to replenish the gasoline supply at any time he so desired. Initial exploration with each of the boys revealed that he did not consciously know "why" he stole. With the exception of a few cases, economic or material deprivation or need was not the motivating factor for stealing. Psychological diagnosis and evaluation pinpointed the causative factors. Some stole to gain prestige among their peers. They wanted to act "big." To them, stealing was a way of satisfying the basic universal drive for status. Although these boys felt the normal human need for recognition and status, they were denied status positions in a respectable society because they somehow could not meet the demands of a respectable status system. Being identified with a delinquent gang which resorted to stealing among other activities, provided a solution to these boys. It met their need to achieve recognition and to avoid isolation. Still others stole to prove that "I can get away with it." These particular boys were rebelling against authority and authority figures. In almost every case, the things the boys stole were substitutions

for or were symbols of something that they unconsciously desired but had been forbidden. In most cases this was love, affection, and attention.

A strong indictment against the homes of the boys is found in the fact that each one of them came from an unstable or "unnatural" home environment. Twenty of the boys came from homes where the mother and father were divorced. In the case of seven of these boys, the mother or father was remarried and a step-father or step-mother was present. Thirteen of these twenty boys lived in broken homes with either the father or the mother (three boys lived with their fathers and ten boys lived with their mothers).

Four of these forty boys lived in one or a number of foster homes. One of these was adopted at two years of age by his aunt when his parents were killed in an automobile accident. Two of these boys were abandoned by both parents—one at two and the other at six years of age.

Eleven of the forty boys lived in homes where the parents were not separated but whose marital problems continuously and violently flared into traumaticizing experiences for their children. In one of these homes, the parents were both deaf (the boy and his sister were physically normal in every way). In eight of these eleven psychologically unstable homes, the mother or father or both were alcoholic. In another, family strife resulted when the father dissipated the family income by gambling at the dog and horse races. And in another case, the father was an emotionally disturbed sexual psychopath.

Four of the forty boys came from homes without strong father figures or with no father at all. These boys were without adequate male ego ideals after which to pattern their lives. In one case, the boy's father could not work due to a heart condition. In another, the father was a heart patient who had rejected his son and had died when the boy was eight years old. In a third case, the father was rejecting and the mother died in unusual circumstances following a rigid reducing formula.

Intellectually, twenty-six or 65 per cent of the forty boys were functioning on an average or above average level. Intelligence was measured using the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children or the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale. Intelligence quotients of fifteen of the boys were between 90 and 110. Eleven of the boys had I.Q.'s between 110 and 135. Six of the boys were dull normal (I.Q.'s between 78 and 89), and eight of the boys were mentally retarded (I.Q.'s between 50 and 78). Two of these eight retarded boys were white and six were colored. Psychological testing administered upon first admission to the clinic revealed that each of the forty boys' intellectual functioning was below what was considered his potential level. They all appeared to be pseudoretarded. Eight boys actually tested mentally retarded (pseudo-mental retardation) upon first administration of a mental

test. Re-evaluation following periods of from five to seven months of favorable environmental manipulation, intensive psychotherapy, and daily educational instruction showed that the original clinical estimates of potential ability were correct. With the exception of those severely retarded mentally, all of them scored I.Q. increases from six to thirty points when they were retested at the completion of their stay in the clinic. Mental classification changed from mental retardation to dull normal level functioning in three cases; from mental retardation to normal functioning in four cases; and from mental retardation to superior level functioning in one case. In no instance was there a decrease in I.Q. after the therapeutic experiences.

Educational retardation was a prominent characteristic of these boys. Each of them was retarded educationally for his chronological and mental age. This was validated by their actual grade placements and by achievement test scores. Test results revealed that each of the forty boys was retarded in one or more of three basic skill subjects—reading, spelling, and arithmetic. This resulted in frustration and tension and eventually culminated in anxiety producing feelings of inferiority and worthlessness. Two of the boys were at or above their grade level in spelling; nine of the boys were at or above their grade level in reading; and four of the boys were at or above their grade level in arithmetic. The remaining twenty-six or 65 per cent of the boys were retarded in all three of the basic skill subjects measured.

Thirty-eight or 95 per cent of the boys were retarded one grade or more in spelling; thirty-six of the boys were retarded one grade or more in arithmetic; and thirty-one of the boys were retarded one grade or more in reading. Average retardation in reading and spelling was 4.5 grades and in arithmetic it was 4.3 grades. The comparatively lower average retardation in arithmetic is probably due to the fact that the mentally retarded boys and those who were non-readers, achieved higher in arithmetic than in reading and spelling. The greatest amount of retardation in reading for any one boy was 8.2 grades; the greatest amount of retardation in spelling for any one boy was 8 grades, and the greatest amount of retardation in arithmetic for any one boy was 7.4 grades.

Unable to achieve as well as their peers, these boys' sense of personal worth was dangerously weakened or destroyed. As a result, they developed feelings of inferiority and became frustrated, tense, and anxious. They lost confidence in their ability to learn that material which tests indicated they were capable of learning. A natural result was an almost unanimous dislike for school. Truancy was a common symptom because they wished to escape from a dull, unrewarding, humiliating situation.

All of the boys were psychosexually and emotionally immature. They were hedonistic in their desires. In this connection, it should be pointed out that "reaction formation" was a commonly used defense against anxiety. Almost all of these boys' emotional reactions were exaggerated, disproportionate, and abnormal. Although such reactions were generally inappropriate to the stimuli that elicited them, they had the function of reassuring the boys against an inner threat to their defenses as well as the function of meeting threatening external situations.

Intellectual control of emotional reaction was weak or totally lacking. These boys were impatient and impulsive. No balance existed between ego, id, and superego drives. Ego and superego development was faulty. The failure of the boys' families to train and develop them resulted in egos and superegos too weak to restrain their id impulses. Therefore, their id drives were in control and erupted into impulsive and uncontrolled amoral and asocial acts. Superego strength or conscience was weak and some seemed lacking in self controls as the classical "psychopath."

Many of the boys were experiencing sexual conflicts involving sexual identification. They were consciously aware of their incomplete masculinity. Their overt behavior and the test results reflected a feeling of basic insecurity about their sex roles. Some were fighting homosexual panic. All of them either lacked sufficient knowledge of sexual facts or were grossly misinformed in this area. They were anxious to learn the truth.

Relations with people were strained. It was difficult for them to relate to their peers, parents, or to other adults. They were outwardly aggressive toward each other and toward adults—particularly their parents and individuals in the community who reminded them of their non-accepting, authoritarian, rejecting, non-loving parents. Teachers and other school personnel were especially singled out as objects of hate and hostility. These boys played "hookey" and were generally mischievous in school. School rules were to be evaded and flouted. As a whole, school personnel were looked upon with challenge, ridicule, defiance, contempt, and malice.

Prior to treatment, only a few of the boys were able to cooperate acceptably in organized and supervised recreation which was of necessity subject to schedules and impersonal rules. Ninety per cent of them found it impossible to play as a member of a team. Their home and community environments and their disabling emotional problems seemed to preclude their ability to participate successfully in wholesome group activities.

Although everyone of the boys projected unfulfilled virility strivings as compensation for feelings of inadequate masculinity, thirty of the forty boys appeared to be, and verbally expressed feelings of being, physically inferior to their peers. These feelings were significantly serious in the case of thirteen of the boys. Their bodies were flabby and disproportionate and

their physical activities were awkward and uncoordinated. They found it embarrassing to expose their bodies and to play in group games. Despite their fears, they sought help in developing their physical physiques and in acquiring adequate physical skills.

One or more overt physical behavior symptoms which signified adjustment problems was observed in each one of the forty boys. Twenty-nine or 72.5 per cent of the boys were serious nail biters. Twenty or 50 per cent of the boys had a history of enuresis and eleven or 27.5 per cent of these were serious bed wetters when they were admitted to the clinic for diagnosis and treatment. One thirteen year old boy had no bowel control—he soiled his pants four or five times per day. Although masturbation is a common mode of behavior during pre-adolescent and adolescent years, fifteen of these forty boys were chronic masturbators. This was a serious problem with them. Thirty of the boys had oral symptoms such as thumb sucking, overeating, and exaggerated craving for sweets such as soft drinks, candy, and cookies. This suggested deprivation of basic oral dependency needs in infancy and early childhood.

Far reaching implications for the pupil personnel team are contained in the facts regarding the physical and psychological stigmata which characterize the forty emotionally disturbed adolescent delinquents in this study. The implications are related to preventive as well as to post counseling and post therapeutic aspects of the delinquency problem. Measures taken in the school by the counselor, psychologist, and social worker are aimed at the development of insight and strengths within each individual so that he can attain his optimal adjustment in society. The inevitable result is that many serious and disabling emotional problems are prevented. Counseling with adolescents and their parents when problems are interfering with adequate adjustment assists them in a number of ways. It helps the adolescent to understand the causes of his acting out behavior and assists him in gaining inner controls so that he may channel his energies and skills into adjustive behavior patterns. It assists parents in understanding their children and helps them to see the need for providing their children with satisfying and successful experiences at home and in the community. These goals are applicable at the elementary as well as the secondary level.

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DID YOU KNOW THAT—88 APGA Life Subscribers have ASCA as primary division?

Play as a Counselor's Tool

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The intent of this article is to summarize psychological literature in an attempt to determine the value of play as a technique for understanding the child, and as a tool for the elementary and junior high school counselor.

The study of play as a means of understanding the child is a comparatively new approach in the field of psychology. It is a technique whereby the child can express his feelings and emotions with something he is familiar.

Rousseau was the first to advocate that the child be educated through play. He offered the suggestion that the teacher himself enter into the play activity (10). Although Freud used play as a means of therapy, he only touched the surface of its possibilities. Only in the last thirty years have people become interested in play as a technique for better understanding the emotions of a child.

Prior to 1919 little work was done with children, because of the difficulty of utilizing free association as is achieved in adults. Prior to this time no work was done with children under six years of age (9). After 1919, Melanie Klein and Anna Freud began to employ the technique of play as a means of analyzing children. Melanie Klein feels that the super-ego is highly developed in the child under six years of age, and Anna Freud feels that the child at this age has not developed a complete super-ego (10).

Since the first use of play as a technique in understanding the child, much has been written about the use of toys, the type of toys, and techniques that should be used. The tools employed has broadened to include all types of toys, psychodrama, drawings, fingerpaintings, clay, music, and almost everything that is known to the young child.

Before one can fully understand the use of play as a technique, it is important for him to understand the development of play in the child. Play involves all types of activity, beginning in the very young child. He passes through sequential developmental stages including motor activities of grabbing, picking up objects, and placing special meanings to things. As the child progresses in age, so do his play activities. He begins to incorporate what he has learned in the past to carry out present activities. As he matures his realm widens, first it includes friends in the neighborhood, and then those at school. With each new group of friends his scope of play activities increases.

Many types of play rooms have been described in the literature. In the beginning, Melanie Klein used play in the home of the child as a technique.

She felt that the child would relate better in an environment with which he was most familiar. After experimentation she found that the child would relate much better out side the home in a setting which was geared for play. By this means the child was removed from the many threats the home offered to his security (9).

The play room should be kept as simple as possible. With the exception of the basic furniture, the only things which should be there are toys. There should be a sink, and the floor should be washable. The toys should be the type that would instill the child to use his imagination as much as possible to reveal his emotional needs.

It should be emphasized that the type of toy used in therapy is not really important. It is far more important that it be something that will motivate the child to structure as well as endow the materials with conceptional and functional content (14). Toys used should be inexpensive, for during acts of aggression it is not uncommon for the child to break the toy. It has been suggested that the child's toys be kept locked, allowing only the same child to use the toys each time. This offers the child a sense of security, feeling they are his own and no one else's (9). Another suggestion is that the child be allowed relative freedom in selecting the toys with which he desires to play.

Studies have been made of the type of toys which are available for the use as tools in therapy with the child. The supply of such toys is practically unlimited, and new ones are coming on the market each day. The following toys are examples of those used to demonstrate motor activity, pattern activity, mechanical activity, and unstructured activity: guns, soldiers, farm animals, baby dolls, telephone, doll family, furniture, trucks, planes, balls, nok-out bench, goose, clay, scissors, paste, pencils, crayons, and paper. The child was then observed to see which toys he picked to best express his needs. It was found that the doll family was chosen most by the child. The conclusion was that he seemed to be able to best express his feelings through this medium (2).

There are two schools of thought with regard to the manner in which play therapy should be carried out. The first is unstructured play. The child is given complete freedom in his choice of toys, and in setting his own stage for play. In this approach, the therapist becomes an observer, watching what the child does. He may enter into the play on the request of the child, taking whatever part the child desires. The second, is the structured plan. The therapist sets the stage for play, gives the child the toys, and asks him to act out what would happen. The main advantage of this plan is that it enables the patient and the therapist to get to the root of the problem more quickly. It also enables the therapist and child to join forces in order to reach a common goal (8).

There are certain facts to be kept in mind in dealing with play as therapy. The person should have a genuine respect for the child as a person. At all times he should display patience and understanding. As in any work with a child, the therapist should first understand and accept himself. The therapist should allow himself sufficient objectivity and intellectual freedom in understanding the things the child is attempting to tell him. Sensitivity, empathy, and a good sense of humor are essential qualities demanded of the personality of the therapist (1).

The child should be helped to understand that he can do anything he likes in the room—that this is his play room. He should also understand that the therapist will not tolerate any physical violence to either himself or the child. Under no circumstances should the adult display any emotion when the child shows aggression and destroys a toy. At the same time, the therapist should not try to force the child to play with a certain toy. He will return to it when he is ready.

In periods of aggression, the child will often destroy the toy with which he is playing. The child will completely ignore the toy for a while, but eventually come back to play with it. Once the child has expressed his aggression and again plays with the toy, he shows the therapist that he has mastered the cause of the aggression and is accepting it in a new light. The child will often discuss how he feels using the doll family to show his emotions (13).

Often in play therapy the child takes the part of the adult and asks the therapist to take the part of the child. Transference takes place between the child and the therapist. Through his role-playing as a child, the therapist can feel with the child in his dealings with the world of adults. Through this medium the child is given an opportunity to learn about himself in relationship to the therapist (1).

The statement made by Lawrence K. Frank in his article *Play In Personality Development* sums up the theory behind this technique: "This approach to personality development emphasizes the process whereby the individual organism becomes a human being, learning to live in a social order and in a symbolic cultural world. Thereby we may observe the child from birth on, growing, developing child play as a means to exploring the world around himself" (4).

One of the basic factors reported in the literature was that the toys used with each child should be within his realm of play. A child should not be exposed to toys that are too old for him because he would not be able to express his true emotions through them. By using toys he is used to playing with, the child will feel freer to play and enter into the world of make-believe. The adult observing him will also obtain a truer picture of what the child is experiencing.

In order to do any work with children it is necessary for the person (psychologist, analyst, or a school counselor) to understand children and have a desire to work with them. The qualities of acceptance and empathy are the most important qualities. It is essential that the person working with the child accept him as he finds him—advancing the child forward from that point toward mutual understanding of the problem. It is also necessary that the adult understand, as well as feel, what the child is experiencing if he is to be enabled to help the child.

In general all the authors were in agreement concerning the type of toys that can be used. The writer found two main differences of thought expressed in the literature. First, there is disagreement regarding the importance of the strength of the super-ego in the young child. Second, authors do not agree on the merits of using the structured techniques or the unstructured. In the case of the first, this writer feels, the therapist will be guided by his own psycho-analytical theories. This should not produce a disagreement. Basically it is a difference in ideals and training. The second difference involves the technique employed, and this will be determined by the amount of training of the therapist, as well as his ability to understand what the child is trying to say through play.

It was a general fact that the doll family was considered the best means of getting the child to express his true feelings about the home situation. When this device is used, it is important to keep the doll family limited to the size of the child's family. Quite often the child will destroy the person within the family that is causing the problem. This may be done by either breaking the doll, completely ignoring it, or stating that he is going to send him away. It is not uncommon for feelings of guilt to follow the removing of the threat to his security. Eventually, the child will again include the doll that had been left out of the play. When this happens the therapist knows that the child is showing acceptance of the problem, and is ready through the world of make-believe to attempt to cope with his personality conflicts.

Everyone agrees that it is extremely important for the person in therapy to be non-emotional. He should not show any display of emotion if a toy is destroyed. By keeping control, the therapist helps the child feel that the room is a place he can do as he pleases. Usually the first time the child destroys an object, he will look at the adult for rejection. When this is not forthcoming, it will give the patient the security of acceptance. This is one of the basic factors in the use of play therapy. It helps the child understand his personality, and its relation to himself as well as the world around him.

Play therapy is a comparatively new and underdeveloped field. Its scope is wide—ranging from toys to art and music. This paper has dealt only with the use of toys employed to help the therapist better understand the child.

The three objectives of the study were to determine: (1) the value of play in understanding the child, (2) the possible use of play by the school counselor, (3) the extent to which it could be applied to the junior high school.

Due to the child's lack of ability to understand himself and the world around him, play therapy is an invaluable tool. It allows a trained person to observe the child in a certain setting. In adults this is done through talking and reasoning, using past experiences. Due to his limited experience, the child is not capable of doing this. Through the use of play, he can accomplish what the adult does by talking.

The use of this technique in our schools can be very helpful to the counselor in his efforts to aid the child to understand himself. However, it is important that the counselor *always* keep in mind that he is *not* a trained psychologist, or therapist. It should never be used to analyze a child, for that is not the counselor's job. With training, this technique could become a valuable tool to the school counselor as he endeavors to help the child achieve maturity and self realization.

The use of toys in the junior high school guidance program is not advisable. The main objection is that chronologically the majority of junior high school pupils have little interest in toys. At this age, the child has the power to reason. Play can be used in the junior high school through such techniques as music, draw a person, draw a house—a tree—a person, finger painting, scatter drawing, and psycho-drama.

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Report of the Committee on National Testing and Scholarships

At its convention in St. Louis, Missouri, on April 2, 1958, the Business Meeting of the American School Counselor Association established the Committee on National Testing and Scholarships to study and report upon the growing problem of national testing programs, particularly as they were related to scholarship awards. The delegates at the convention were concerned about the confusion and rivalry that had developed in the field of national testing. They expressed the fear that these elements could operate to the detriment of testing, scholarship programs, and guidance in general.

The 1960 committee found much in recent developments to justify the alarm felt by the delegates who establish the committee. Concern is now felt in the area of college admissions as well as in the area of scholarship awards. The 1960 committee found that:

1. Much of the responsibility for national scholarship testing has been shifted to secondary schools without their consent. Secondary schools find themselves in the position of being forced to participate in mushrooming testing programs that are expensive to operate and are often unrelated to testing programs already existing in the schools. The outside testing programs tend to concentrate the time and attention of counselors on a relatively small proportion of students in school.
2. The growing emphasis on national testing and national test results does not take into account the professional competence of school counselors to establish worthwhile testing and screening procedures in their own schools.
3. There are less expensive, less involved, and more functional methods for screening students for national scholarships. Such screening can be accomplished by the use of data available to counselors who deal individually with students in school.
4. There is inadequate published research data on the nationally administered tests.

5. It is questionable whether individual schools can standardize the administration of national tests sufficiently to justify the fine discriminations that are made on the basis of the test scores.

6. A second nationally administered test for college admission has now been marketed. As a result, many students are placed in the position of having to take two entrance examinations in applying for college.

7. The Minnesota Counselors Association published three resolutions on February 2, 1960, in which they took the position (a) that external testing programs should be entirely administered by test sponsors, (b) that the ethics involved in the professional use of tests also applies to the selling and advertising procedures of test publishers, and (c) that the practice of some test publishers of pressuring schools and parents into various testing programs should be protested.

On the basis of these findings, the Committee on National Testing and Scholarships presented several resolutions to the ASCA Business Meetings in Philadelphia on April 11 and 13, 1960. The resolutions, in abbreviated form, were as follows:

1. The resolutions of the Minnesota Counselors Association should be strongly endorsed.

2. The American School Counselor Association does not wish to be in the position of endorsing national testing programs. However, it feels that, if such programs continue, secondary school and college personnel should be involved on a policy-making level on the programs.

3. National testing programs should not interfere with regularly scheduled class operations in school.

4. Initial screening for national scholarship programs should be conducted by secondary schools on the basis of information available from local school records and test data rather than on the basis of nation-wide testing.

5. If several nationally sponsored tests for college entrance continue in operation, colleges and universities should agree to accept any of the tests as a fulfillment of entrance requirements. Furthermore, test makers should provide comparable scores for all of the tests. This presupposes that all tests are well constructed, standardized, validated and administered.

6. Schools should establish functional testing programs to provide reliable data for all students for all purposes—scholarships, college entrance, vocational choice, identification of atypical students, and so forth.

7. The American School Counselor Association should work with the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of Secondary School Administrators, the Association of College Admission Counselors, and the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers on programs related to external testing programs.

8. The inadequacies of present national testing programs should be given adequate publicity in the journals of professional educators and administrators, and workable recommendations for solving the problems involved should be presented.

The Business Meeting on April 13, 1960, debated the resolutions at length, and there was strong support for the basic principles and ideas presented. A number of delegates felt that the resolutions needed reworking on two counts: (1) there were regional differences in testing needs which were not adequately covered in the report and (2) some of the resolutions needed clarification and strengthening.

As a result, the Business Meeting voted to return the resolutions to the Committee on National Testing and Scholarships for strengthening and clarification and requested that a report of the committee's work be made available to the membership. President Wahlquist requested that members at the meeting write to the committee as promptly as possible and outline their reactions to the resolutions.

The following steps are now being taken in this area:

1. The Committee on National Testing and Scholarships has been expanded to include persons from widely differing regional and geographical areas of the United States.

2. An interim report will be presented to the Board of Governors at its meeting in Denver, Colorado, in October, 1960. This report will include reactions and suggestions received before August 25, 1960.

3. The committee has written to the Director of the Joint Committee on Testing of the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the Council of Chief State School Officers and has asked to participate in their study.

4. The members of the American School Counselor Association are requested to send their reactions to the above report to the present writer at San Mateo High School, San Mateo, California. They are further invited to advise the committee if they feel the report needs broader coverage. These reactions and suggestions will be incorporated in the committee's report and resolutions to be presented in the Business Meetings at the convention in Denver, Colorado, in April, 1961. The committee urges members of ASCA to write promptly so that it will have the advantage of comments from experienced counselors in the field.

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The Scattergram: An Index of Academic Potential and Production

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If reported findings are of value (1, 2, 4, 5 and 6),* it would seem reasonable to expect that academic success is coterminous with intelligence in combination with other significant human traits not subject to evaluation by tests of the type currently used as a measure of intelligence.

Lyle Spencer (3), president of Science Research Association, and testing specialists for education and industry, stated recently that, "Thousands of extra-bright youngsters, unaware of their mental capabilities, are, through poverty, confusion or discouragement, drifting into lifetime activities far short of their capabilities. We must locate this wealth and refine it for the public welfare." The guidance counselors have the special responsibility for seeking these pupils whose academic achievement is out of line with their intellectual potential and help them deal with the forces tending to interfere with their fullest development.

The writer uses a scattergram analysis which has been found to provide a concise individual and/or group inventory of academic achievement in relationship to mental ability. On a grid, such is shown in Figure 1, the vertical scale indicates grade-level academic achievement (G.L.) or standardized measurement of achievement in a particular subject area. The horizontal scale indicates mental ability (M.A.) or standardized mental-age scores. A delineation of the areas between the diagonal lines is as follows:

- Between lines CC and BB—Average achievement
- Between lines BB and AA—Below average achievement
- Between lines CC and DD—Above average achievement
- Above lines DD —Overachievement
- Below lines AA —Underachievement

The position of a child in the class is determined by plotting a point that will represent both his academic achievement and mental ability. The major purpose of this arrayed distribution is to enable the guidance counselor and other school personnel to quickly and concisely identify the students, like Paul, with the intellectual ability (M.A.—8.5) to do better than indicated school work (G.L.—7.7).

This technique has further proved to be a rather dramatic way of emphasizing that a child, like Anne (M.A.—9.5), even though achieving at or above the seventh grade-level may be an underachiever (G.L.—7.5). At

* See references.

the same time the scattergram indicates that there are also children, like John, who have very limited mental aptitudes (M.A.—4.8) but who are over-achievers (G. L.—6.9) when rated in terms of their ability. Mable (M.A.—7.0, G.L.—7.5) and Jean (M.A.—7.5, G.L.—8.8) are average and above average, respectively, in respect to their academic ability and achievement.

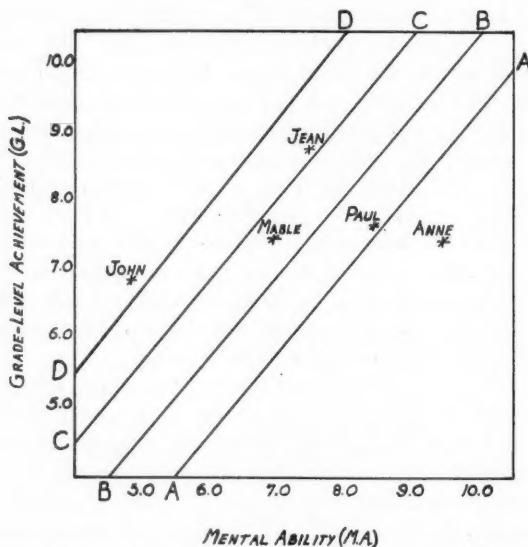


FIG. 1. Distribution of five seventh grade students according to mental ability and grade-level achievement.

The use of the scattergram technique is not restricted to guidance counselors. It is designed to be of service to teachers of all subjects and grade levels, students, and their parents as well. The relationship of academic achievement to mental ability can be vividly explained to children or adults with the use of this technique. The implications for individual scores are usually self-evident.

School personnel who have utilized the scattergram have without exception agreed that too much time is far too often given to children who are below norm (though actually overachieving in relation to their ability) and that not enough time is given to more capable children who, though working at or above grade-level, are underachieving in relation to their ability. The scattergram technique can help spotlight and rescue this hidden talent.

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HINTS FOR COUNSELORS

Tools and Techniques Counselors Find Successful

Bridging the Gap for the Incoming Student from Elementary to Junior High School

One of the most difficult adjustments a youngster has to make in the public schools is the transition from the elementary to the junior high school level. The average youngster in elementary school usually has had one teacher for his major academic subjects. His elementary teachers knew him "like a book." They knew his idiosyncrasies, what he could and could not do academically. They knew his faults, likes and dislikes. His friends were children from his own neighborhood.

Now that this youngster has moved onto the junior high level he faces several teachers instead of one, he acquires new friends, not just from his own neighborhood but from distant and outlying districts. He is now working at a faster pace, leaving one classroom and being in the next class within a three minute limit. In physical education, the emphasis now is upon the physical skills rather than elementary games. More homework is expected of this youngster. At times this might vary from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 hours per night, whereas on the elementary level homework ranged from no homework to about one hour per evening.

When this youngster comes from the elementary school to seventh grade, relatively little is known of him except what is contained in the

cumulative folder. This information we know can be either skimpy or voluminous and yet be extremely inadequate.

In order to facilitate the transition from the elementary to junior high level, the following program is suggested. Through its activation, counselors, administrators and teachers will better understand the youngster when he enters the junior high school.

First of all, there must be a very close liaison between the elementary schools and the junior high. This author has found one approach quite successful, not only in his present situation but in his previous capacity as an elementary counselor. I refer to a meeting between the principal, the counselor, the junior high counselor, and the teacher of the pupil.

At this conference, the youngster's intellectual ability, reading level, I.Q. and achievement test scores, strengths and weaknesses in the various academic subjects, possible home problems, attendance factor, conduct, health problems, placement in various tracks (if tracking is part of the system set-up) should all be discussed. Other factors that should be considered are: each pupil's interests, hobbies, and whether there is a psychological problem prevalent. If so, how it should be handled on the next level should be considered.

From past experience I have determined that it should take no more than two hours per class to go over the individual records. Taking an average school district, this program should take no more than two full days to complete. During this time it would be well to consider hiring a substitute teacher to take over the regular teacher's class while that teacher is in conference. As soon as the teacher finishes the conference and returns to her class, the substitute goes onto the next sixth grade class listed in the conference schedule.

The hiring of a substitute teacher is a worthwhile expenditure for a school district particularly if it aids a smooth transition and adjustment of a youngster entering the junior high school.

There may be other methods of facilitating the transition from elementary to junior high school, however, it is the author's feeling that nothing is better than going back to the grass-roots. The grass-roots being the elementary class-room teacher's estimate of the individual youngster. If anyone knows the abilities, interests, and needs of the incoming seventh grader, it is the elementary teacher.

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Resources in Health for School Counselors

If a student is absent day after day, teachers and counselors become concerned about his health. But what about the restless child who always insists on immediate attention, the one who has difficulty reading, or the one who withdraws from the company of his classmates? What about the excessively self-conscious adolescent, the rebel defying all rules, or the listless day-dreamer? Their behavior, too, may have its roots in matters of health. In fact, when health is interpreted broadly as it should be—embracing total physical, emotional, mental, social, and spiritual well-being—then it is clear that most problems which come to the counselor's attention are basically health problems.

In their efforts to help teachers, students, and parents, many counselors in both elementary and secondary schools have welcomed the services of the School Health Bureau of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. In elementary schools, primary responsibility for guidance rests with the classroom teachers who know the children best. A valuable guide to help these teachers recognize good health and deviations from it is the booklet **WHAT TEACHERS SEE**. The instructive and captivating color photographs of school children and accompanying text run the gamut of childhood afflictions from impetigo to measles and from "cross-eye" to vitamin deficiencies. Under the title **TEACHER OBSERVATIONS OF SCHOOL CHILDREN**, the same material is also offered in filmstrip form for use with parent groups as well as with teachers.

Elementary school teachers are often charged with special responsibility for keeping height and weight records. What can such records reveal? How should they be kept? How should they be interpreted to children and parents? **POUNDS AND INCHES**, a leaflet for teachers, explores these questions with an emphasis on the individuality of children's growth patterns.

Counselors and teachers cooperating on the high school level will find assistance on physical and mental health problems in **THE TEACHER AND THE PHYSICIAN** and **LIVING AND WORKING TOGETHER**. Both originally appeared as issues of the School Health Bureau's outstanding *Health Bulletin for Teachers*. **THE TEACHER AND THE PHYSICIAN** reviews teacher responsibility for perceptive observation, for referrals, for cooperation with others on the school staff, for interpretation of the school's program to parents, and for setting an inspiring example. **LIVING AND WORKING TOGETHER**, with its accompanying guide of suggested learning experiences, was planned to promote education for

effective teamwork to meet the challenges we face. It was prepared in response to much urging not only from educators but also from leaders in industry and in the armed forces.

Parents can frequently be reassured, encouraged, and guided with added insights into the child's world at different ages. *SIX TO EIGHT: YEARS OF DISCOVERY* and *UNDERSTANDING YOUR TEENAGER* are publications which can help open parents' eyes to the worlds of their children and to the needs which they as parents can meet. The first booklet considers the excitement and awkwardness of six to eight as they move out into the strange and wonderful world beyond the family. The second publication looks at the problems, both serious and trifling, of teenagers on the threshold of independence and emotional maturity. Possibilities for family-school cooperation in handling these problems are reviewed in a Bulletin addressed to parents entitled *THE PARENTS' ROLE IN THE SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM*.

Two pieces of reading matter addressed specifically to teenagers, *YOUR TEEN YEARS* and *YOUR RESPONSIBILITY FOR HEALTH*, can provide reinforcement for their growth in self-understanding, maturity, and responsibility for their health. The authors of both seem well aware of self-consciousness and special concerns of adolescents.

Recent research in nutrition indicates a close correlation between eating habits and emotional health as well as physical well-being. *FOOD FOR THE FAMILY*—a booklet suitable for parents, teachers, and high school students—not only explains the fundamental nutrients necessary for healthful living and the highly diversified foods which can supply them, but also points out the emotional significance of foods and mealtime atmosphere. *HOW TO CONTROL YOUR WEIGHT*, as the title implies, focuses on one particular phase of the nutrition problem. It includes warnings about fad diets, an outline of recommended action, and calorie tables.

Calm and sensible discussion of such highly charged questions as alcoholism is hard to find. In working with students and parents from households where there is a compulsive drinker, counselors will be grateful for *ALCOHOLISM: A GUIDE FOR THE FAMILY*. The tone is sane; suitable attitudes and action are recommended; and sources of help are suggested.

Now that many youths are called upon to serve in the armed forces shortly after high school graduation, counselors can do much to prepare them for military life. *EXPLORING THE HEALTH POTENTIALITIES OF MILITARY SERVICE*, a Bulletin made possible through the co-operation of the U.S. Department of Defense, includes much helpful information about military life, its exigencies and opportunities. To help future recruits and their families better understand the possibilities of compulsory military service, there are also special Bulletins addressed

respectively to teenagers and their parents: THE CHALLENGE OF MILITARY SERVICE (for students) and MILITARY SERVICE AND THE HOME (for parents).

Students who are struggling to find orientation and purpose in their lives can often be helped by reading biographies. Two booklets in the School Health Bureau's famed series of Health Heroes Biographies have recently been revised with updated text and appealing new format. FLOR- ENCE NIGHTINGALE AND THE FOUNDING OF PROFESSIONAL NURSING demonstrates the courage, imagination, and practicality of this versatile woman. Similarly, WALTER REED AND THE CONQUEST OF YELLOW FEVER demonstrates the hard work and the satisfactions in the life of this adventurous scientist-physician. In addition to encouraging the formulation of worthwhile values for personal life and public service, these biographies can be useful in vocational guidance with students interested in scientific and medical careers.

Bulletins entitled PROFILE OF THE PRACTICING PHYSICIAN and PHYSICIANS OF TOMORROW put the spotlight directly on medical and paramedical careers. Yet they go far beyond the usual cold facts to communicate a sense of the physician or medical worker's way of life. They also manage to tell much in little space about the personal characteristics and outlook needed for such work, about educational preparation, about the work itself, and about sources of additional information for students and counselors. More specific are the colorful brochure and the flyer on HEALTH EDUCATION AS A CAREER; these materials examine the challenges, qualifications, requirements, and rewards of this important and relatively new profession.

The Metropolitan's School Health Bureau makes each of these services available to schools without charge. The publications range in length from two to 25 pages. School counselors can use any of them with the assurance that experts in education and related fields have participated in their preparation and given their wholehearted approval. For those who would like to request copies, the address is: School Health Bureau, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1 Madison Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

W. CARSON RYAN, Chairman, Subcommittee on Teacher Education of the School Health Bureau's Advisory Educational Group, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company



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